DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 288 996 CE 048 929

AUTHOR Klein-Konz, Ann; Todd-Mancillas, William
TITLE A Review & Critique of Trainee-Oriented Training Programs.
PUB DATE Nov 87
NOTE 32p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Speech Communication Association (Boston, MA, November 4-7, 1987).
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Adult Education; *Behavior Change; *Corporate Education; *Employee Attitudes; Employee Responsibility; Employer Employee Relationship; *Industrial Training; *Models; *Organizational Change; Participative Decision Making

ABSTRACT

This paper reviews literature on trainee-oriented training programs, which assign to individual employees predominant responsibility for diagnosing organizational problems requiring changes in employees' behaviors. A Self-Change, Adaption, and Modification (SCAM) Model is developed. The literature support for the model is written in similar fashion to Todd-Mancillas and Kibler's (1975) change model from which the SCAM Model is derived. Instead of presenting the literature review in standard essay format, it is presented in logical, sequential segments, each supporting one of the SCAM training steps. The literature support for SCAM training steps follows this format: name of element, purpose of the element, and a list of literature support citations for that step. The steps are problem identification, behavioral assessment, analysis of behavioral discrepancy, steps to ideal status (action planning), measurement of results, recommendations for change, and post assessment. The final section recommends improvement of the trainee-oriented training program literature by upgrading the quality of research undertaken and published and providing more detailed explanations of how to implement SCAM programs. A reference list is attached. (YLB)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

CE

ED288996

A REVIEW & CRITIQUE OF TRAINEE-ORIENTED TRAINING PROGRAMS

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

W. Todd-Mancillas

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

BY

ANN KLEIN-KONZ
INFOTEL
OMAHA, NE

AND

WILLIAM TODD-MANCILLAS
DEPT. OF COMMUNICATION STUDIES
CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, CHICO

CE048939

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

A REVIEW & CRITIQUE OF
TRAINEE-ORIENTED TRAINING PROGRAMS

ABSTRACT

This paper reviews literature on trainee-oriented training programs; i.e., training programs which assign to individual employees predominant responsibility for diagnosing organizational problems requiring changes in employees' behaviors. Based on a review of the literature, a "S"elf "C"hange, "A"daption, and "M"odification (SCAM) Model is developed, useful for understanding the steps followed when implementing such programs. Lastly, some suggestions are made for future research activities.

Organizational training programs, important to the functioning of every business, are expensive to implement, with the U. S. industry's annual bill for management training ranging from 3 to 10 billion dollars (Dyer, 1978, p. 50). Unfortunately, many training programs are not effectively implemented.

> . . . most development programs result in wasted time and money. Research on the effectiveness of management development programs indicates improvement in knowledge of the trainee and in the attitude of the trainee. However, little factual data can be found indicating an actual change for the better in job performance (Hoy, Buchanan, and Vaught, 1981, p.954).

Presently, we do not know the percentage of training programs that fail, only that many of them do. Evidence of organizational training failures are reported in numerous training and business journal articles. Among the more commonly cited causes of training program failures are: the wrong people are recruited to attend the training sessions, the inadequacy of behavioral assessment techniques, the implementation of training programs presumed suitable for all employees, lack of reinforcement, lack of motivation to change, the complicated nature of some training materials, an inability to transfer to actual working conditions the skills learned during training sessions, lack of upper management support, and the lack of organizational readiness. It is instructive to consider further each of these causes.

WRONG PEOPLE RECRUITED

Organizational training frequently fails because participants are not the ones who would most benefit from the training.

LACK OF BEHAVIORAL ASSESSMENT

Trainees do not realize the extent to which the training program can improve their performance, because they have not analyzed their own strengths and weaknesses in the

topic area (Trost, 1985). Consequently, when they return to the work force, the trainees do not realize the importance and the need for continuing to implement the skills they have just learned.

SELDOM IS A TRAINING PROGRAM SUITABLE FOR ALL EMPLOYEES

Some training programs fail because they are not based on the unique needs of individual participants (Williams, 1978). Trainers can fall into a "one size fits all" trap and presume there is only one way to change or learn a new behavior (Parry & Reich, 1984). Trainees may think of an alternative way to handle a situation, but not be able to incorporate the idea in the training process because it does not fit the training model.

LACK OF REINFORCEMENT

The work environment has many important contingencies of reinforcement that a supervisor (or trainer) has no direct control over (Manz and Sims, 1980). Consequently, even though an employee may have been trained to perform a specified skill to the satisfaction of the trainer, when returned to the natural work environment, the employee may no longer perform the specified skill appropriately because there is no one present to reward the trainee.

LACK OF MOTIVATION TO CHANGE

Often trainees either do not want or can not change their ways of doing things (Luthans & Davis, 1979). The change idea may be feasible and profitable for the company, but the personnel lack the motivation to change.

MATERIAL IS TOO COMPLICATED

Organizational training sometimes fails because the change idea is too complicated. Whether it be how to operate a machine or how to handle a problem employee, if the solution is too complicated to implement, a trainee will resort to their original method of solving the problem.

LACK OF TRANSFERABILITY

One of the reasons why organizational training programs fail is that trainees are unable to apply what they learn in the training workshop to what they have to do on the job. For instance, Williams (1978) explains that while a managerial trainee may have learned participative management techniques during a training program, that when attempting to apply these technique on the job, he/she may encounter conflicting resistance from coworkers unfamiliar with and resistant to the change. This resistance may be sufficient to block a trainee's efforts to transfer their newly learned skills to everyday working contexts. The trainee may subsequently conclude that the new technique "may work in the laboratory, but not in the real world."

LACK OF UPPER MANAGEMENT SUPPORT

Organizational training sometimes fails because of

management's failure to support the innovations introduced (Robinson, 1984; Porras & Anderson, 1981) Also, management may know too little about the innovation to reinforce the new procedures (Trost, 1985).

NOT SUITABLE FOR THE ORGANIZATION

No matter how good the idea is, the organization may not yet be ready to implement a particular change. The reason may be because of lack of machinery, money, personnel, or some other material limitation.

Many of the above discussed problems can be avoided to the extent that one adopts a trainee focused change perspective. Instead of trainers assuming full responsibility for the design and implementation of training programs, emphasis might be better placed on encouraging trainees to assume these responsibilities. Ample evidence exists indicating that when trainees assume these responsibilies many of the above discussed problems are avoided.

RECRUITING THE RIGHT PEOPLE

When trainees choose to participate in change programs, they ususally do so because they have a personal need to change. However, when trainers select participants for a change program, they sometimes recruit participants who don't want to change. Since it is well established that people change the most when they want to--not when they are forced to--it would appear trainee focused programs may be superior because the most suited participants are selected in the first place (Dyer, 1978).

BEHAVIORAL ASSESSMENT

In trainer focused change programs, prior behavioral assessments are made of the trainees, and this information may or may not be shared with the participants. However, in trainee focused change programs, not only are the trainees cognizant of this information, they are the ones who conduct the preassessments and, thus, are actively involved in the change process from the outset. This early involvement helps to demystify the change process, thereby increasing its probability of success (Williams, 1978).

INDIVIDUAL ORIENTATION

In trainee focused training programs, the trainees design their own action plan or tailor their training program to meet their own behavioral change goals (Williams, 1978).

IDENTIFYING THE MOST APPROPRIATE REINFORCEMENT

Trainee focused training programs allow trainees to

create or identify their own behavioral reinforcers instead of relying on an external agent (e.g., trainer).

INCREASED MOTIVATION TO CHANGE

Trainee focused training programs individualize the learning process and make training more fitting and appropriate for dealing with many diverse staff needs by allowing trainees to set individual goals for behavior change and design individual action plans to carry out those goals. The very act of concentrating on one's own needs makes trainees more motivated to change.

LEARNING ASSISTANCE

Since the trainees are themselves actively involved in designing a change program uniquely suited to meet their needs and, further, since they receive assistance from a trainee focused program specialists, the likelihood increases that trainees will learn how to properly implement the changes.

SKILLS ARE MORE EASILY TRANSFERRED AND ADAPTED TO JOB SETTING

Skills learned in training are more easily transferred to the job because the trainee becomes personally involved in the change process. The trainee exercises choice about how to adopt or change their behavior by preparing an action plan to adapt the skill to their specific situation.

UPPER MANAGEMENT SUPPORT

Training programs involve not only the trainee and trainer, but also the trainee's manager (Trost, 1985). Consequently, the behavior changes are more likely to be suited for the organization because, like trainees, upper management is involved from the outset.

SUITABLE FOR ORGANIZATION

When listing training goals, the trainees consider organizational goals, as well as individual goals.

Thus, there are many advantages of trainee focused change programs as means of overcoming some of the commonly cited causes of training failures. Despite their apparent advantages, however, it does not appear that trainee-oriented programs are implemented as often as justification warrants. For instance, a recent survey of Southwest Virginia businesses indicated that behavioral self-assessments (a critical first step in implementing any trainee focused change program) were taken using performance appraisals or

other types of evaluations made by managers, rather than by the employees themselves (Bures & Banks, 1985). This implies that at least for similarly, this area of the country, there is a decided preference for using trainer-rather than trainee-oriented training procedures. After interviewing a diverse sample of American business trainers, Faris (1983) also concluded that trainee-oriented training methods are used for less frequently than trainer-oriented methods.

Perhaps trainee-oriented training programs are implemented less frequently than they might because training literature lacks a systematic and comprehensive review of the techniques used in trainee-oriented training programs. In order for trainers to develop trainee-oriented training programs, they must first become familiar with the training techniques, and, secondly, have guidelines for their implementation. Think for a moment of the literature on trainee focused training programs as a puzzle. Up to now, organizational trainers have been exposed to many different puzzle pieces (research articles on the techniques used in trainee-oriented training programs), which need to be joined together to construct a coherent picture of what a trainee-oriented training program looks like. Therefore, what organizational trainers need is a systematic review of factors affecting the success of trainee-oriented training programs. Thus, in this paper an attempt is made to develop a generic trainee-oriented training model based on supporting documentation. Also outlined herein is each step taken in the administration of a trainee-oriented training program. Lastly, an effort is made to critique constructively our knowledge of trainee-oriented training

procedures, with specific research objectives posited for future research.

TRAINEE-ORIENTED TRAINING MODEL

Procedure for Identifying Pertinent Literature

The primary source for the model's steps and literature support was derived from Todd-Mancillas and Kibler's (1975) design of a systematic procedure for identifying educational change needs and developing procedures for implementing those changes. Three different procedures were used to update the model and its documentation. First, a university library's subject catalog system was used, with particular attention given to book's having any of the following in their titles: "self-management," "self-directed," "self-control," "behavior modification," and "self development." Second, several training, business, education, and psychology journals were reviewed, all having 1975-1985 publication dates. Third, after locating a pertinent book or article, its bibliography was scanned in search of other pertinent and currrent citations.

Format

The literature support for the trainee-oriented training model is written in similar fashion as Todd-Mancillias and Kibler's (1975) change model. Instead of presenting the literature review in stardard essay format, it is presented in logical, sequential segments, each supporting one of the SCAM training steps.

SCAMP

(Self-Change, Adaption, & Modification Program)

IMPLEMENTATION MODEL

PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION	ASSESSMENT		ANALYSIS OF DISCREPENCY
Identify Trainee's Perceptions of Problems & Ideal Status	Identify Present Behavior	1 Trainee's Assessment of Behavior 2 Supervisor's or Other's Perception of Trainee's Behavior 3 Behavior Inventory or Test	Identify Discrepency between Present Behavior and Ideal Status

STEPS TO IDEAL STATUS		MEASURE RESULTS	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR CHANGE
Determine Steps to Ideal Status: ACTION PLAN	1 Goal Setting	Measure Final Results Against Ideal Status	Make Recommendations for Future Change
	2 Set Reinforcers		
	3 Timeline		
	4 Rehearsal/Modeling		
	5 Follow-up Assessment		

POST
ASSESSMENT

After Training
Assessment

Literature Support for SCAM Training Steps

PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

Identify Trainee's
Perception of Problems
& Ideal Status

The trainee's purpose in the first element of the SCAM model is to identify their perception of the problem and posit an ideal status, i.e., how they would prefer things to be. This will help them better understand their past behavior and provide insight on how they can improve their future behavior (Manz & Snyder, 1983), and may also indicate the extent to which they are willing to make the change (Spice & Kopperl, 1984). The following is a list of literature support citations for the SCAM model step 1: Problem Identification.

1. When the trainee identifies serveral problems, they should be rank-ordered in importance (Heichberger, 1973). This will ensure the training program being designed to resolve the most serious problems prior to resolving less serious problems, thereby, resulting in a more effective expenditure of the organization's resources.

2. The trainee should describe the goals of an ideal status as clearly as possible (Becker, 1973b; Havelock 1973a; Oppenheimer, 1970).

3. To preclude misunderstandings which might arise about expectations between trainer and trainee, these expectations should be written into a contract, and signed by each (Mahan, 1972).

4. It is important for the trainee to be involved in identifying problems and ideal status, because trainees will change most when they feel a genuine need to change (Anderson, 1984; Dyer, 1978).

BEHAVIORAL ASSESSMENT

Analyze Present
Behavior

In this element the trainee should analyze their present behavior (strengths and weaknesses) in order to set their own objectives (Moore, 1984) and to develop a change program which will help them achieve their previously specified ideal status. The assessment is important, because the resulting information can be used in developing reinforcement procedures (Manz and Sims, 1980), and because it verifies whether, in fact, trainees' perceptions of problems are verifiable. Below are literature support citations for SCAM model step 2: Behavioral Assessment.

1. A trainee's perceptions of their present behavior must be validated empirically in order to differentiate between real needs and other considerations which may only be symptoms of real needs (Hearn, 1972).

1.1 The psychological process of selective exposure, attention, perception and recall may cause the client to perceive problems that in fact do not exist or fail to recognize those that do exist (Cooper & Jahoda, 1947).

2. A set of procedures for acquiring information should be developed to insure maximum effectiveness and effeciency (Havelock, 1973a).

2.1 TRAINEE'S ASSESSMENT OF BEHAVIOR
Trainees can track their behavior by keeping a "baseline" (Luthans & Davis, 1979), "behavior log" (Kurt Southam, 1979), or "time-log" (Hoy, Buchanan & Vaught, 1981) of behavior.

2.2 OTHER'S PERCEPTION OF TRAINEE'S BEHAVIOR

a. Supervisors should record their observations of the trainee's behavior and discuss their records with the trainee (Hoy et al., 1981). In this manner, the trainees get two different perspectives on what behaviors need improvement.

b. Trainees are sometimes unable to transfer their newly learned skills to the actual job setting because of resistance encountered from their "bosses" (Robinson, 1984). By involving bosses from the outset-thereby soliciting their imput and commitment to the training process-one increases the probability of bosses accepting, endorsing, and

promoting change efforts.

2.3 BEHAVIOR INVENTORY OR TEST
a. Hard data are preferable to anecdotal information in evaluating the accuracy of the trainee's perceived present status (Worthen & Sanders, 1973).

ANALYSIS OF DISCREPENCY

Identify Discrepency
between Present Behavior
and Ideal Status

The purpose of this step is to identify and describe discrepencies between the trainee's present behavior and ideal status.

Below are literature citations supporting the SCAM model step 3: Analysis of Discrepency.

1. It is easier to understand the nature of a problem when it is expressed in the form of discrepancies between the present and ideal behavior status (Kuuskraa, 1971).

2. Expressing problems in the form of discrepancies between the present and ideal status also suggests what needs to be done to reach the ideal status (Stufflebeam, 1971).

3. The trainee should list possible solutions for the discrepency problems.

3.1 Brain-storming among trainees and trainers can be used to broaden the range of possible solutions (Osborn, 1953).
3.2 The greater the number of possible solutions, the more effectively the trainee can select workable solutions (Havelock, 1973a).
3.3 Trainees should prioritize all possible solutions and evaluations made on the usefulness and realness of the solution.

4. The discrepancy analysis can be used to determine the extent of training failure or success once the change effort has been completed.

STEPS TO IDEAL STATUS

Determine steps
to Ideal Status:
ACTION PLAN

The purpose of this step is to identify and describe the intermediary objectives which must be met in progressing toward the ideal status. Obtaining a clear understanding of the number and complexity of these intermediary objectives forces change agents to consider whether available resources are sufficient to meet ideal status objectives. Also, by specifying intermediary objectives, one has a clearer understanding of how to design and execute the action plan intended to meet these and final objectives. The following are literature citations supporting the SCAM model step 4: Steps to Ideal Status.

1. Trainees should translate the training process into clear concrete plans and actions that can be implemented in the actual work setting (Dyer, 1978).

1.1 Formulating criteria for the trainee to use to determine when the ideal status has been realized facilitates the task of identifying intermediate objectives (Hersh & Yarger, 1972).
1.2 Broad based participation should be solicited in the design of the action plan.
1.3 Designing effective pre- and post-implementation training programs begins with preassessing accurately the population's attitudes toward, knowledge of, and ability to use the behavior change.
1.4 On the basis of these preassessments, realistic end-point objectives should be established (Halverson, 1974; Hersh & Yarger, 1972). Ideally, these end-point objectives should be stated as behavioral objectives (Gross, Giacquinta & Berstein, 1971; Linton, 1936; Sybouts, 1973).
1.5 It is also important to establish antecedent objectives leading toward the end-point objectives (Rhodes, 1969). Antecedent objectives are helpful in conducting formative evaluation and reinforcement programs.
1.6 The most effective approach to applying action plans to the training material is to divide the subject matter into modules and develop specific action plan assignments pursuant to each (Stroul & Schuman, 1983).

Action Plan Step 1: GOAL SETTING

The trainees should commit themselves to realistic goals.

These realistic goals should be narrow in scope and precise in their description (Manz & Synder, 1983).

1. Failure to work toward realistic goals will probably result in an unsuccessful change effort (Anderson, 1974).

2. Realistic goals are fewer in number than unrealistic goals (Cawelti, 1974).

3. Realistic goals aim toward affecting an optimal degree of change (Lighthall, 1973; Mahan, 1972).

4. Realistic goals are stated in specific terms (Hamilton, 1970).

5. Realistic goals are stated as measurable objectives (Heichberger, 1973; Sybouts, 1973).

6. Goal setting increases the chances that the desired behavior will be obtained (Manz & Sims, 1980).

7. Goals should be stated in writing (Manz & Synder, 1983).

Action Plan Step 2: SET REINFORCERS

The trainee's task in this element is to analyze the target population in order to ascertain its potential for successfully implementing and maintaining a behavior change.

1. The trainee should analyze how the people in their environment are going to affect their behavioral change goal.

   1.1 The relationship between the trainee and the potential target population is a major determinant of the client's perception of the present and ideal status (Klein, Note 1).
   1.2 The assessment and change processess depend upon adequate representation of all constituencies within the target population during all steps of the SCAM implementation model (Anderson, 1974; Argyris, 1965; Heichberger, 1973; Likert, 1967).

2. Trainees must make an analysis of the work environment and determine the barriers and enhancers that will affect behavior change (Robinson & Robinson, 1985). Unless the organizational climate is conducive to change, there is little possibility of successful change (Doak, 1970; Goodland, 1972).

2.1 The degree to which the organizational structure is "easily and readily modified to meet needs as they arise" is positively correlated with the probability of change being successful (Fordyce & Weil, 1971).
2.2 The degree of energy and enthusiasm which the organization expends in meeting its goals is positively correlated with the probability of successful behavior changes.
2.3 The degree to which members are willing to engage in risk taking behaviors in order to meet organizational goals is positively correlated with the probability of changing successfully a behavior (Fordyce & Weil, 1971).
2.4 The degree to which middle management and supervisory personnel support the training program is positively correlated with the trainee's success in completing the behavioral change process (Trapnell, 1984; Hoy, et al., 1981).

3. The trainees must identify certain key individuals within the target population and determine their potential impact on the behavioral change process.

3.1 Broad based participation should be solicited in the design of the action program.

4. A reward system should be developed for reinforcing efforts to adopt and maintain the new behavior (Trump, 1974). The success of the action plan is dependent upon the effectiveness of the inital reinforcement program (Halpin, 1967; McGregor, 1960). Unless adopters are reinforced for their initial risk-taking behavior, it is unlikely they will take subsequent risks to implement the change.

4.1 Reinforcement should be immediate for maximum effect (Skinner, 1968).
4.2 The trainer/trainee should meet soon after the initial reinforcers have been administered in order to discuss and document their effectiveness.
4.3 Social reinforcement, especially social reinforcement in the form of positive communication with peers and supervisors (Hurt, Scott, & McCroskey, 1978), is one of the cheapest yet most effective reinforcers (Heichberger, 1973; Marrow, Bowers, & Seashore, 1967).
4.4 Intrinsic reinforcement is another powerful reinforcer (Miller, 1973).
4.5 Reinforcement should be administered frequently for maximum effect (Skinner, 1968).
4.6 The success of the action program is dependent upon the effectiveness of the reinforcement program to maintain the adoption (Rhodes, 1969).
4.7 Anticipating the rewards for a behavior will increase the occurrence of those behaviors (Wehrenberg & Kuhnle, 1980).

4.8 Behavior may be reinforced through recognition, money, opportunity for advancement (Hoy, et al., 1981).

5. The trainer/trainee should meet frequently to assess the effectiveness of the reinforcement program and make appropriate modifications.

6. The Premack Principle states that any behavior that a person engages in frequently (high-probability behaviors) can serve as a reward to increase the infrequently occurring behavior (low-probability behaviors) (Luthans & Davis, 1979).

7. The trainee should have someone whom they trust, who is interested in helping them reach their goal, and is sufficiently skilled in the area of their behavioral goal (Katz, 1964).

Action Plan Step 3: TIMELINE

The action plans are based on a timeline so the trainee has a guide as to the appropriate amount of time and effort devoted to each step.

1. The trainee should design and develop a resource system for identifying, storing, and retrieving the materials necessary for successful implementation and maintenance of the change effort.

Action Plan Step 4: REHEARSAL/MODELING

Trainees should practice their intended behavioral change goals.

1. There are many different types of training program techniques that help prepare trainees for effective change efforts, including demonstrations, conferences, workshops, video taped-group discussion kits, video-taped models of a specific skill, and college extension courses (Sybouts, 1973; Wehrenberg & Kuhnle, 1980).

2. Behavioral modeling/rehearsing has been used successfully to increase success in meeting a variety of behavioral objectives (Goldstein & Sorcher, 1974).

2.2 Rehearsing a behavior change can be done mentally (imagining the change in your mind) and physically (actually performing the behavioral change) (Manz & Synder, 1983).

3. Gardner's (1972) studies suggest that training techniques should be selected on the basis of "learning by doing."

Action Plan Step 5: FOLLOW-UP ASSESSMENT

Formative evaluations allow the trainee to identify problems as they arise in the implementation and behavioral change process, and to resolve these problems before they become major obstacles to change (Havelock, 1973a). Formative evaluations are also necessary to provide the trainee with a rational, data-supported basis either for continuing to implement or for terminating the change (Havelock, 1973a; Trapnell, 1984).

1. Formative and summative evaluation programs should be developed which allow one to objectively measure progress made in meeting the antecedent and end-point obejctives (Bass & Vaughn, 1966; Beckard, 1956; Dyer, 1978).

2. The evaluation programs should make provisions for measuring changes in trainee output.

3. Throughout the implementation of the action plan, formative assessments should be made to assess the effectiveness of the program, and to identify and resolve problems as they arise.

4. Formative evaluations should be frequent, because frequent evaluations afford frequent opportunity for improvement (Lata & Papay, 1971).

5. To help the trainee stay with the action plan, many training programs have the supervisors regulating the behavior change or have weekly evaluations of the action plan with the trainee (Hoy, et al., 1981; Southam, 1984). People change when the change effort is supported by a respected other (Dyer, 1978).

6. The follow-up procedures must be chosen carefully to appropriately measure objectives or goals. Zenger & Harris (1982) identified and assessed several evaluation procedures, including reaction sheets, anecdotes, incidents and testimonials, knowledge-gained measurements, observation checklists, questionnaires, pre- and post-tests, and multiple test administration.

7. Without frequent support for the behavior change, one will slip back into the old routines before the new behaviors are permanently applied in the work setting (Trost, 1985).

MEASURE RESULTS

Measure Final
Results against
Ideal Status

Upon conclusion of the action plaan, a summative evaluation is made to assess the overall impact of the action plan. Below are literature support citations for the 5th step of the SCAM model: Measuring Training Results.

1. Terminal or summative evaluation provides the trainees with means of determining the success of the overall implementation effort (Heichberger, 1973; Hetzel & Barnard, 1973). Such evaluations are also important because they provide data-supported reasons for modifying future change efforts (Lata & Papay, 1971) and serve as a means of obtaining much needed psychological closure on the change process (Hetzel & Barnard, 1973).

2. To ensure maximum objectivity, effectiveness, and efficiency, the evaluation program should be planned before implementing the change (Mahan, 1972a; Sybouts, 1973).

3. All relevant and interested persons should participate in the design and implementation of the evaluation program (Williams, 1978).

4. One means of facilitating participation is to conduct frequent meetings involving representatives of relevant and interested persons participating in the diffusion process (Mahan, 1972a).

5. The evaluation plan can be designed most efficiently and its results used most effectively if it is based on specific measurable objectives (Sybouts, 1973).

6. An efficient criterion for assessing the adoption of a change effort is the length of time required for the trainee to adopt the change (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971).

7. The evaluation plan should measure the effectiveness and efficiency of procedures used in gaining awareness and acceptance for implementing and maintaining the change effort (Lata & Papay, 1971).

8. Results of the summative evaluation may also suggest ways to further maintain the change.

9. The trainer, trainee, and other affected parties should be involved in the summative evaluation.

10. Documentation of the summative evaluation is also needed to substantiate claims of success or failure for the change effort.

11. If pre-tests are administered, post-tests can be used to measure trainee's gain in skill, knowledge, or performance (Trapnell, 1984).

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR CHANGE

Make Recommendations for Future Change

Based upon the conclusions from the summative evaluations, recommendations can be made for future behavioral change implementations.

POST ASSESSMENT

After Training Assessment

Evaluations should not cease once the training has ended. Below are literature citations supporting SCAM model step 7: Post Assessment.

1. It is necessary to design and develop post-implementation training programs, because the short-term experience of an implementation program seldom leads to long-term behavioral change (Dyer, 1978; Halverson, 1974).

2. Follow-up assessments help trainees cope with situations that arise in the work place that training did not prepare them to anticipate or resolve (Williams, 1978). This information, in turn, helps management to safeguard their initial investment in employee training by focusing attention on how these problems might be resolved before they vitiate progress thus far made (Moore, 1984).

3. Since trainees sometimes find it hard to transfer knowledge learned in the classroom to the work place, they need their supervisors to coach them after the training program is over (Hoy, et al., 1981). Coaching involves meeting with the trainee periodically and critiquing their performance and providing positive reinforcement for long lasting behavioral improvement (Robinson, 1984).

In summary, the steps followed in implementing trainee-oriented training programs consist of problem identification, behavioral assessment, analysis of behavioral discrepency, action planning, measuring training results, developing recommendations for future change, and conducting ongoing assessments of the consequences of the change effort. The foregoing model and literature support were presented as a means of better organizing the trainee-oriented training literature and providing training implementation guidelines for trainers. In addition to the training model, trainers would also benefit from a brief critique of the trainee-oriented training program literature.

AN EVALUATION OF THE TRAINEE-ORIENTED TRAINING PROGRAM LITERATURE

There are two ways in which the trainee-oriented training literature can be improved upon: upgrade quality of research undertaken and published, and provide more detailed explanations of how to implement SCAM programs.

A. QUALITY OF ARTICLES PUBLISHED IN TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

There is a woeful lack of solid research systematically

evaluating the effectiveness of trainee-oriented programs as they are actually implemented in the workplace. Most of our documentation on the subject comes from research done in laboratory settings or from anecdotal references to successful and unsuccessful implementation attempts. Put bluntly, more rigorous research is needed particularly research:

(1) using quasi and true experimental designs in the evaluation of specific training procedures.
(2) replicating training studies already done.
(3) conduct more research which considers a wide variety of factors that may affect the ease and success with which training programs are implemented (including participant age, size of office or company, degree of complexity of change objective, etc.).

B. SPECIFICITY OF PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

These are not the only ways in which training research might be made more relevant to trainer practitioners, but it would be a significant beginning.

Among the "How To Do It" articles published in the literature, trainers would benefit from more specificity. Too many of these articles describe only in the most vague manner how trainee-oriented programs are implemented, without providing sufficient specificity to allow one to understand precisely how to implement various aspects of a trainee-oriented training program. Accordingly, many trainers forego implementation of such programs because they don't know exactly how to do so. They have a vague idea of a program's overall mission, but lack a clear idea of how to implement particulars. The end result is either no implementation or -worse- a failed implementation, which leaves the trainer frustrated, embarassed, and unwilling to try something new in the future.

SUMMARY

An obvious objective of any organization is to train its personnel as efficiently and effectively as possible. Unfortunately, there is some evidence indicating that many training programs are costly and ineffective. What is needed, then, is a search for more effective training paradigms. As indicated by research conducted by many training specialists, training programs may be made more effective to the extent they involve trainees in the design and implementation of these programs. This paper provides trainers with one general approach toward implementing trainee-oriented training programs. Literature support is provided for each step in the SCAM (Self, Change, Adaptation, and Modification) Model. Lastly, specific suggestions are made for future research on this topic.

REFERENCES

Anderson, James G. When leaders develop themselves. Training & Development Journal, June 1984, 18-22.

Anderson, B. R. Who's afraid of MBO? School Management, 1974, 18(9), 26-32.

Argyris, C. The individual and organization: Some problems of mental adjustment. In W.G. Hack (Ed.), Educational Administration: Selected readings. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1965.

Bass, B. M. & Vaught, J. A. Training in industry: The management of learning. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1966.

Beckard, R. How to plan and conduct workshops and conferences. New York: Association Press, 1956.

Becker, J. Organizing for change: The individual in the system. Social Education, 1973, 37(3), 193-195; 241. (b)

Bures, A. & Banks, M. C. Title of Article Not Given. Training & Development Journal, January 1985, 60-66.

Campbell, Donald and Stanley, Julian. Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs For Research. Washington D.C.: American Educational Research Association, 1963.

Cawelti, G. How to get your hands on your district's curriculum. The American School Board Journal, 1974, 161(5), 36-40.

Cooper, E., & Jahoda, M. The evasion of propaganda: How prejudiced people respond to anti-prejudice propaganda. Journal of Psychology, 1947, 23, 15-25.

Doak, E. D. Organizational climate: Prelude to change.

Educational Leadership, 1970, 27(4), 367-371.

Dyer, William. What makes sense in management training? Management Review, 1978, 68(6), 50-56.

Ehrenberg, Lyle M. How to ensure better transfer of learning. Training & Development Journal, February 1983.

Faris, John P. Employee training: The state of the practice. Training & Development Journal, November 1983, 85-92.

Fordyce J., & Weil, R. Managing with people. Reading, Mass.: Addison Wesley, 1971.

Gardner, J. M. Teaching behavior modification to nonprofessionals. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 1971, 5, 517-521.

Goldstein, A. P. & Sorcher, M. Changing supervisor behavior. New York: Pergamon Press Inc, 1974.

Goodland, J. Staff development: The league model. Theory into Practice, 1972, 11(4), 208.

Gross, N., Giacquinta, J. B., & Berstein, M. Implementing Organizational Innovations. New York: Basic Books, 1971.

Halpin, A. Theory and research in administration. New York: Macmillan, 1967.

Halverson, M. B. Facing the realities: Some conference planning principals. Adult Leadership, 1974, 23(2), 47-49.

Hamilton, N. K. Sensing and timing in change. Educational Leadership, 1970, 27(4), 341-342.

Harmon, Paul, & Evans, Kay. When to use cognitive modeling. Training & Development Journal, March 1984, 67-68.

Havelock, R. G. The change agent's guide to innovation in education. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1973. (a)

Havelock, R. Response linkage in innovative educational problem-solving: Ideal vs. actual. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1973, 6(4), 76-87. (b)

Hearn, N. E. The where, when and how of trying innovations. Phi Delta Kappan, 1972, 53, 358-374.

Heichberger, R. L. Toward a strategy for humanizing the change process in schools. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1973, 7(1), 78-85.

Hersh, R. H., & Yarger, S. J. Prerequisites for change. Journal of Teacher Education, 1972, 23, 141-144.

Hoy, Frank, Buchanan, W., & Vaught, Bobby C. Are your management development programs working? Personnel Journal, December 1981, 953-957.

Hurt, H. T., Scott, M. D. & McCroskey, J. C. Communication in the Classroom. Reading: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co, 1978

Kuuskraa, V. A. Needs Assessment. Washington, D. C.: Thompson, Levin & Associates, Inc., 1971.

Lata, R. F., & Papay, J. P. Planning for change: An iterative approach. Planning and Changing, 1971, 2(2), 70-80.

Lighthall, F. F. Multiple realities and organizational nonsolutions: An essay on anatomy of educational innovation. School Review, 1973, 81(2), 254-293.

Likert, R. Human organization: It's management and value. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Linton, R. The study of man. New York: D-Appleton-Century, 1936.

Luthans, Fred, & Davis, Tim R. V. Behavioral self-management - the missing link in managerial effectiveness. Organizational Dynamics, Summer 1979, 42-60.

Mahan, J. M. Frank observations on innovation in elementary schools. Interchange, 1972, 3, 144-160. (a)

Manz, Charles C., & Sims, Henry P. Jr. Self-management as a substitute for leadership; A social learning theory perspective. Academy of Management Review, 1980, 5(3), 361-367.

Manz, Charles C. & Synder, Charles A. How resourceful entrepeneurs meet business challenges . . . and survive. Management Review, October 1983, 68-73.

Marrows, A. J., Bowers, D. G., & Seashore, S. E. Management by participation. New York: Harper & Row, 1967.

McGregor, D. The human side of enterprise. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960.

Miller, W. Innovation and the teacher. Educational Leadership, 1973, 31(1), 63.

Moore, Elizabeth Randall. Competency-based training evaluation. Training & Development, November 1984, 92-94.

Moses, J., & Ritchie, D. Assessment center used to evaluate an inter-action modeling program. Assessment & Development Newsletter, January 1975.

Oppenheimer, M. Successful and unsuccessful change in two educational setting. Journal of General Education, 1970, 22, 175-185.

Osborn, A. F. Applied imagination: Principles and procedures of creative thinking. New York: Scribner, 1953.

Parry, Scott B., & Reich, Leah R. An uneasy look at behavior modleing. Training & Development Journal, July 1979, 8-13.

Porras, Jerry, & Anderson, Brad. Improving managerial

effectiveness through modeling-based training. Organizational Dynamics, Spring 1981, 60-77.

Rhodes, L. Linkage strategies for change: Process may be the product. Phi Delta Kappan, 1969, 51, 204-207.

Robinson, Dana Gaines, & Robinson, James C. Breaking the barriers to skill transfer. Training & Development Journal, January 1985, 82-83.

Robinson, James C. You should have sent my boss. Training, March 1984, 45-47.

Rogers, E. M., & Shoemaker, F. F. Communication of innovations. New York: Free Press, 1971.

Skinner, B. F. The technology of teaching. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968.

Southam, Kurt D. Behavior logs: Hope for the hopelessly abrasive? Training, April 1984.

Spice, Martha, & Kopperl, Susan. Are your trainees willing? Training & Development Journal, May 1984, 30-32.

Stroul, Neil A., & Schuman, Gary. Action planning for workshops. Training & Development Journal, July 1983, 41-42.

Stufflebeam, C. D., et al. Educational evaluation and decision making. Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc. 1971.

Sybouts, W. Change by objectives. Clearing House, 1973, 48(2), 67-72.

Todd-Mancillas, William R., & Kibler, Robert. A review and critical analysis of the literature pertaining to the diffusion of educational innovations. Annual Convention of the International Communications Associations, Chicago. April 1975.

Trapnell, Gail. Putting the evaluation puzzle together. Training & Development Journal, May 1984, 90-93.

Trost, Arty. They may love it but will they use it? Training & Development Journal, January 1985, 78-81.

Trump, J. L. The mythology and reality of change viewed from the model schools project. The Educational Digest, 1974, 39(9), 22-25.

Webb, E. J., Campbell, D. T., Schwartz, R. D., & Seechrest, L. Unobstrusive Measures: Nonreactive research in the social science. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1970.

Wehrenberg, Stephen, & Kuhnle, Robert. How training through behavior modeling works. Personnel Journal, July 1980, 567-580.

Williams, Patrick. Organization self-development. Training & Development, February 1978, 9-12.

Worthen, B., & Sanders, J. Educational evaluation: Theory and practice. Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones, 1973.

Zenger, J. H., & Hargis, K. Assessing Training results: It's time to take the plunge. Training & Development Journal, January 1982, 10-16.

REFERENCE NOTES

1. Klein, S. P., et al. Procedure for needs assessment evaluation: A symposium. (U. C. L. A. Report No. 67). Los Angeles, Center for the study of evaluation, 1971.